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Increased expression of CD95-ligand and other apoptotic signaling factors by fumonisin B_1 , a hepatotoxic mycotoxin, in livers of mice lacking tumor necrosis factor α

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Abstract

Fumonisin B₁ (FB₁), a mycotoxin, is a potent inhibitor of ceramide synthase, and produces organ-, species-, and even genderspecific toxic responses in animals. The hepatotoxic response of FB₁ in mice involves accumulation of free sphingoid bases and induction of inflammatory cytokines including tumor necrosis factor α (TNFα). The FB₁-induced hepatotoxic responses were reduced in mice lacking TNFα receptor (TNFR) 1 or TNFR2. However, the hepatotoxicity was exacerbated in mice lacking TNFα. We therefore investigated the modulation of various other apoptotic signaling factors in TNFα-knockout (TKO) mice compared to wild-type (WT) strain after repeated daily subcutaneous injections of 2.25 mg/kg FB₁ treatment for 5 days. Expression of various signaling genes in liver was evaluated by ribonuclease protection assay. Expression of CD95-ligand (FasL) was more than doubled in TKO animals after FB₁ whereas it was unaltered in the WT group. FB₁ did not alter CD95 expression in either strain; however, expressions of TRAIL, and downstream signaling factors FADD, TRADD, and caspase 8 were higher in FB₁-treated TKO mice than in the corresponding WT animals. The TKO strain had a higher constitutive expression of apoptotic factors except CD95L. In addition to the CD95 and TNFα systems, the expression of apoptotic molecules bcl-2, b-myc, c-myc, bax, max, mad and IL1α was induced by FB₁ in TKO mice to a greater extent than in WT animals; many of these factors also had a higher constitutive expression in TKO animals than WT mice. Results indicated that FB₁ can induce CD95 modulated signaling when TNFα is absent. Differential constitutive expression of apoptotic genes in TKO mice may explain their increased sensitivity to FB₁. These results are important in characterizing the modulating effect of TNF α on apoptotic signaling and in explaining the unexpected sensitivity of mice lacking this cytokine in response to hepatotoxic xenobiotics.

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The role of inflammatory cytokines in the initiation and development of liver toxicity has been well established. Liver-associated lymphocytes and their cytokine products, especially tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α) are involved in liver injury during alcoholic hepatitis [1]. Neutralizing antibodies to TNF α or interleukin (IL)-1

reduced the hepatotoxic response of acetaminophen in mice [2]. The involvement of TNF α was reported in hepatotoxicity induced by carbon tetrachloride, dimethylnitrosamine or cadmium [3–5]. TNF α and interferon γ (IFN γ) are involved in concanavalin A-induced hepatitis and in liver toxicity in response to repeated challenges of lipopolysaccharide [6,7].

Fumonisin B_1 (FB₁) is the most abundant of the toxic fumonisins. It causes liver toxicity characterized by apoptosis in mice [8]. This mycotoxin is one of several fumonisins produced by *Fusarium verticillioides*, and is a common contaminant in corn and corn products. FB₁ produces tissue- and species-specific damage in different

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animals. In horses FB_1 causes leukoencephalomalacia, in swine pulmonary edema, and in most species, including rodents, liver and kidney damage [9]. In mice and rats, gender-specific differences have been observed. FB_1 is a more potent hepatotoxin in female than in male mice and a more potent kidney toxin in male rats, compared to female rats or mice of either sex [10]. FB_1 has been implicated in esophageal cancer and primary liver cancer in people [9–11].

Fumonisins are structurally related to the free sphingoid bases, sphinganine and sphingosine, and thereby inhibit their incorporation into ceramide by inhibiting sphinganine- or sphingosine-N-acyltransferase (ceramide synthase). This is a critical mechanistic step that leads to disrupted cell function. Although the sensitivity of different tissues to the toxic effects of this mycotoxin differs, the inhibition of ceramide synthase by FB_1 and resulting accumulation of sphinganine have been reported in most tissues. For example, mouse kidney exhibited high accumulation of sphinganine in response to FB_1 , yet it is not as sensitive as mouse liver to FB_1 toxicity as judged by histopathological criteria [8,12].

A variety of biochemical changes subsequent to the inhibition of ceramide synthesis and accumulation of free sphingoid bases in response to FB₁ have been reported [13]. These effects include modulation of protein kinase C and mitogen-activated protein kinases. We recently reported the induction of proinflammatory cytokines, especially TNF α , IFN γ and IL-12 in mouse liver after exposure to a single or repeated doses of FB₁ [14–16]. Macrophages isolated from FB₁-treated mice secreted more TNF α in response to lipopolysaccharide activation in vitro compared to the saline-treated control [17]. TNF α was also induced in macrophages directly treated with FB₁ and acute hematologic effects of FB₁ were antagonized by pretreatment of mice with anti-TNF α antibodies [17].

To further investigate the role of TNFα in FB₁induced hepatotoxicity we have employed various transgenic strains of mice. In mice, hepatotoxicity to FB₁ repeated exposure was reduced in strains lacking TNF α receptor (TNFR) 1 or TNFR2 [18,19]. However, in mouse strain with deleted TNFα gene (TNF knockout (TKO) mice), the hepatotoxic response to FB₁ was not ameliorated despite the overwhelming evidence that TNF α is involved in the toxic effects of fumonisin [20]. We wanted to investigate in the current study the mechanism describing why the fumonisin hepatotoxicity was not reduced in the absence of TNF α pathways. Since FB₁ modulates several inflammatory cytokines and apoptotic signaling molecules in sensitive tissues, we hypothesized that in the absence of TNFα FB₁ modulates other apoptotic pathways including the CD95 (Fas) signaling in TKO. Subacute exposure of male BALB/c mice with FB₁ produced no changes in the CD95 signaling system including the expressions of CD95,

CD95-ligand (CD95L or FasL), Fas-associated death domain (FADD), and Fas-associated protein factor (FAF) [15]. However, in the current study the CD95 system was markedly activated in mouse-strain lacking TNF α gene and can be responsible for the increased hepatotoxicity of these animals after treatment with FB₁. We hereby report the increased expression of CD95L and downstream molecules in the CD95 signaling along with the increased levels of TNF α -related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) by FB₁ in TKO animals and discuss the importance of hepatic lymphocytes in producing hepatotoxicity.

1. Results

The increased hepatotoxicity in TNFα-null mice (TKO) as compared to wild-type (WT) mice in response to FB₁ has been reported elsewhere [20]. Increases of relative liver and spleen weights and peripheral leukocyte counts were noticed after FB1 treatment in TKO strain only. The effects of FB₁ in the TKO strain were characterized by relatively higher levels of plasma alanine aminotransferase (4.7-fold greater in FB₁-treated TKO than the corresponding WT strain) and aspartate aminotransferase (2.5 times greater in FB₁-treated TKO animals than in FB₁-treated WT mice), and increased severity of microscopic liver lesions over the corresponding WT strain [20]. In the current report, we have further characterized the incidence of apoptotic cells using terminal uridine nucleotide end labeling (TUNEL) and proliferating cells by immunohistochemistry for proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA). The illustration of TUNEL-positive cells in mouse liver is presented in Fig. 1. These results were in excellent agreement with those obtained by examination of hematoxylin and eosin stained sections and those reported previously [20]. Very few apoptotic cells were noticed in the liver of one salinetreated mouse (others showed none), whereas there was a considerable number of TUNEL-positive cells in livers of both WT and TKO mice after FB₁ treatment. Because of a high variability among mice of the same group the differences between FB₁-treated WT and TKO were not statistically significant, although a greater incidence of TUNEL-positive cells in livers from TKO mice was apparent. It was therefore clear that the lack of $TNF\alpha$ had no protective effect against FB₁ hepatotoxicity in the TKO mice [20].

The incidence of PCNA-positive cells in livers from different groups of animals is shown in Fig. 2. Livers from saline-treated WT mice had a few scattered proliferating cells. Significantly more PCNA-positive cells were found in the livers of the FB_1 -treated WT mice. The number of PCNA-positive cells in liver was increased by FB_1 treatment in the TKO strain to a similar or slightly greater extent than in WT mice.

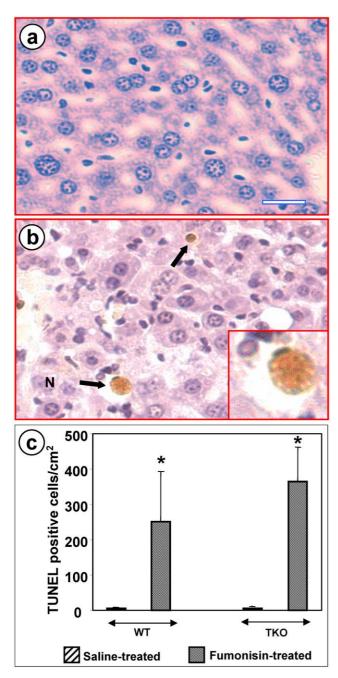


Fig. 1. Enumeration of apoptotic cells in liver by TUNEL assay. (a) Liver from saline-treated WT mouse showing normal architecture and no TUNEL-stained cell. Bar in the lower right equals 40 μ m. (b) Liver from FB₁-treated TKO mouse; arrows indicate some of the TUNEL-positive cells. Cells are irregular with less pronounced nuclear morphology, the detailed pathological description of hematoxylin—eosin stained sections has been presented elsewhere [20]. Arrows indicate apoptotic cells. The inset represents a single TUNEL-positive nucleus (N) separated from the surrounding cytoplasm. (c) The number of TUNEL-positive cells in tissue sections normalized to unit area (mean \pm standard error, n = 5). The symbol (*) indicates a significant difference from the saline-treated group of the same strain (p < 0.05).

The expression of various genes involved in apoptosis and cell cycling was investigated by the ribonuclease protection assay (RPA). This technique is quantitative and the phospho-imaging signal is linear within several orders of magnitude. Representatives of selected RPA

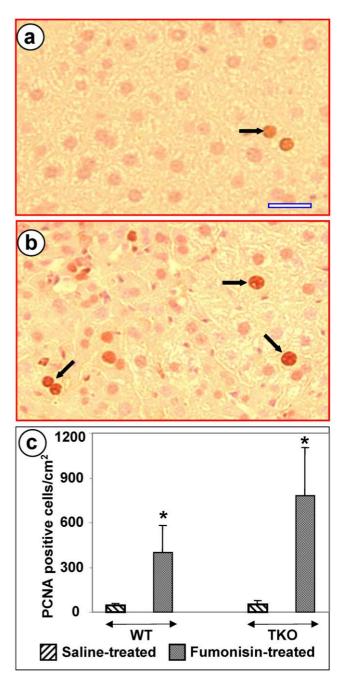


Fig. 2. Enumeration of cells in liver showing the expression of PCNA by immunohistochemistry. (a) Liver from saline-treated WT mouse showing normal architecture and two PCNA-positive cells (one marked by an arrow). Bar in the lower right equals 40 μ m. (b) Liver from FB₁-treated TKO mouse; arrows indicate some of the PCNA antibody-stained cells. (c) The number of PCNA-positive cells in tissue sections normalized to unit area (mean \pm standard error, n = 5). The symbol (*) indicates a significant difference from the saline-treated group of the same strain (p < 0.05).

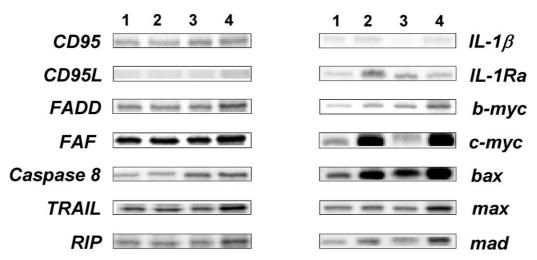


Fig. 3. Representative gels from the RPA assay for the expression of selected genes. The respective lanes indicate sample from: 1, a saline-treated WT mouse; 2, FB₁-treated WT mouse; 3, saline-treated TKO mouse; and 4, FB₁-treated TKO mouse.

bands are illustrated in Fig. 3. The RPA was conducted using RNA extracted from livers of individual mice from groups of five animals each and normalized to the expression of L-32, a ribosomal protein as an internal standard, for each individual sample.

Fig. 4 illustrates the data from various groups of mice regarding the expression of CD95-related molecules. In the TKO mice, the constitutive expression of CD95 was nearly doubled, although the treatment with FB₁ did not alter the CD95 expression in either strain of the mice. However, the expression of CD95L (FasL) was increased nearly 2.3 times by FB₁ treatment in the livers from TKO mice, while it was unaffected in the WT group. Expression of downstream CD95-related factors, such as FADD, Fas-associated phosphatase (FAP) and FAF, tended to be higher in FB₁-treated TKO animals than in FB₁-treated WT mice (Table 1). This was also true for caspase 8, and other caspases examined (caspase 3 and caspase 6; data not illustrated since differences were not statistically significant between FB₁ and saline-treated groups in either strain).

The expression of other apoptotic signaling and interacting molecules is also presented in Fig. 4. It is interesting that the expression of *TRAIL* was increased by FB₁ in both WT and TKO mice; but because the constitutive expression of *TRAIL* was higher in TKO mice, higher amounts of *TRAIL* were present in TKO than in the WT strain after FB₁ treatment. The expressions of *TNFR1*, *TNFR-associated death domain* (*TRADD*), and receptor interacting protein (*RIP*) were all increased in a similar way; the increased level in TKO mice after FB₁ was greater than those for the corresponding WT group.

Expression of selected cytokines and related molecules is also provided in Fig. 5. FB₁ induced IL- 1α in the liver of TKO mice only, whereas the expression of IL- 1β was not significantly altered in either strain. The expression of

IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1Ra) was increased by FB_1 in WT mice only and the levels of IL-18 were not significantly affected by FB_1 in either strain.

Fig. 5 also presents the expression of other selected apoptotic factors measured by RPA. Levels of expression for *max*, *mad* and *b-myc* were increased by FB₁ in TKO mice only; those for *bax* and *c-myc* were increased by FB₁ in both strains of mice employed here. Again, the extent of increase for *bax* and *c-myc* was higher after FB₁ treatment in TKO animals than the respective WT group. The expression of *bcl-2* was not altered by FB₁ treatment of animals in either strain.

An observation of interest in this study was the finding that the constitutive expression of a variety of apoptotic factors was higher in TKO than the respective WT mice. Treatment of these animals with FB₁ further increased these molecules; the expression was increased to a greater extent in FB₁-treated TKO mice than the FB₁-treated WT animals (Figs. 4 and 5). Of particular interest here are *CD95L*, *bax*, *max* and *b-myc*, all of which were induced greater than 2-fold in FB₁-treated TKO than in the FB₁-treated WT mice.

2. Discussion

Results presented here supported our hypothesis that signaling pathways other than TNF α can be activated to a greater extent by FB₁ in the absence of TNF α . In particular, the expression of CD95L was increased by FB₁ only in the animals without TNF α and that of TRAIL was induced in the TKO mice to a greater extent than in WT animals. FB₁ did not induce CD95 or CD95L in intact WT strain employed here; a similar finding was observed earlier for BALB/c mice [15]. The BALB/c animals also had no increase in FADD, FAF, RIP or TRAIL [15], which were significantly elevated by FB₁ in the present

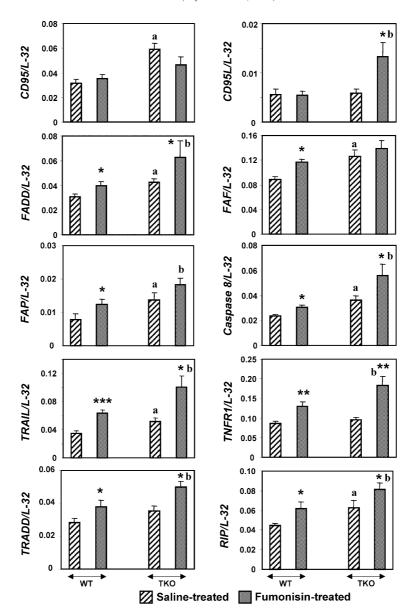


Fig. 4. The fumonisin B_1 -induced changes in the mRNA expression for different genes related to CD95 and TNF α receptor pathways. The hepatic RNA from an individual animal was subjected to RPA and normalized against L-32. Mean \pm standard error (n = 5). Asterisks on bars indicate a significant difference from the saline-treated group of the same strain at *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, and ***p < 0.001. Comparisons between the two strains with similar treatment are indicated as: a, significantly different from the saline-treated WT (p < 0.05); b, significantly different from the FB₁-treated WT (p < 0.05).

WT (B6,129) strain. In the absence of TNF α the TKO mice had more than twice the *CD95L* after FB₁ treatment than saline-treated TKO or WT animals.

The role of cytokines in toxicant-induced hepatic injury has been established. Cytokines differentiate naive T helper (Th) cells into Th1 and Th2 phenotypes. The imbalance between Th1 and Th2 cells has been related to pathological processes [21]. Liver-associated T lymphocytes spontaneously secrete IL-1 α , IL-6 and TNF α in cultures [1,22]. It has been suggested that TNF α can cause liver cell apoptosis through CD95 expressed by liver cells [1]. When TNF α is not produced, as in the TKO mice, other factors may likely compensate for its absence.

In the current study we have also shown a significant increase in the induction of IL- $I\alpha$ in TKO mice after FB₁ exposure compared to intact WT animals.

The effect of TNF α is mediated mainly via its two receptors, TNFR1 and TNFR2 [23]. In the current study and also in a previous study from our laboratory [15] we observed that FB₁ increased the expression of *TNFR1*. The effect of FB₁ on *TNFR2* expression has not been investigated. Although the TKO mice were devoid of $TNF\alpha$ expression, it is possible that FB₁ may have effects on other signal elicitors such as lymphotoxin α (also referred as TNF β). It has been reported that lymphotoxin α is capable of binding both TNFR1 and TNFR2 [24]. In

Table 1 Relative abundance of mRNA in the livers of WT and TKO after saline or fumonisin B_1 treatment

Gene name	GeneBank accession #	% Change in TKO over WT ^a		
		Saline-treated	FB ₁ -treated	Description
CD95L	U06948	6.8	148.8*	Apoptosis inducing ligand
CD95	M83649	89.1*	31.0	Apoptosis inducing receptor
FADD	NM_010175	37.2*	58.2*	Fas associated death domain
FAF	XM 127359	42.7*	19.6	Fas associated protein factor
FAP	D83966	73.4*	48.0*	Fas associate protease 1
TRAIL	U37522	46.3*	58.4*	TNFα related apoptosis inducing ligand
TRADD	AA013699	26.0	32.1*	TNFR associated death domain
RIP	U25995	39.9*	30.5*	TNFR interacting protein
TNFR1	M59378	11.2	40.7*	P55 TNFα receptor
Caspase 3	U49929	15.7	38.7	Apoptotic protease
Caspase 6	NM009811	31.4	42.8	Apoptotic protease
Caspase 8	AF067834	55.3*	83.9*	Apoptotic protease
$IL-1\alpha$	NM 010554	53.8*	76.6*	Inflammatory cytokine
IL-1β	M15131	-34.5	-36.3	Inflammatory cytokine
IL-1Ra	M57525	32.4*	-25.2	IL-1 receptor antagonist
IL-18	D49949	-5.6	-12.8	IFNγ-inducing cytokine
MIF	BC024895	13.3	-13.7	Macrophage migration
				inhibitory factor
bad	L37296	-8.6	30.6	Apoptotic factor
bax	L22472	56.1*	159.0*	Apoptotic factor
mad	L38926	12.7	68.4*	Apoptotic factor
max	M63903	16.6	104.2*	Apoptotic factor
b-myc	W18410	42.0	127.7*	Oncogene, apoptosis
c-myc	X00195	129.4*	52.0*	Oncogene, apoptosis
bcl-2	NM 009741	34.7*	19.9	Anti-apoptotic factor

^a The saline treated groups in TKO mice compared to WT mice (constitutive expression in the two strains), and FB₁-treated TKO mice compared to FB₁-treated WT mice, respectively.

a preliminary study using the microarray technique we have observed an induction of $\mathit{lymphotoxin}~\alpha$ in intact BALB/c mice along with an increase in $\mathit{TNF}\alpha$ (unpublished data). An increase in $\mathit{lymphotoxin}~\alpha$ expression may contribute to hepatotoxicity, although its relative role after FB₁ treatment has not been determined. Our future studies will investigate the role lymphotoxin α may play in FB₁-induced hepatotoxicity in mice.

It should be stated here that TKO mice were different in their expression of various apoptotic signaling than the normal intact mice. Furthermore, while these mutants are viable and fertile, they completely lack splenic B cell follicles and cannot form organized follicular dendritic cell networks and germinal centers [25]. The TKO animals were relatively resistant to smaller doses of lipopolysaccharide after D-galactosamine sensitization but were sensitive to lethal doses of lipopolysaccharide. The organogenesis in Peyer's patch is normal in these mice but formation of B lymphocyte follicles is defective [26]. The TKO mice showed little or no initial response to heat-killed Corynebacterium parvum challenge, but developed a delayed vigorous inflammatory response leading to death [27]. A virulent mycobacterium did not induce granulomas in TKO mice [28], suggesting a differential response to antigenic challenge or an external

stimulus in the absence of TNF α . As is apparent from the data in present study, the profile of a number of apoptotic signaling molecules is quite different in TKO mice than the WT animals.

Both CD95L and TRAIL have similar apoptotic mechanisms in tissues although they act via different receptors [29–31]. There is limited information on the expression of *CD95L* and *CD95* in mouse liver. Mouse liver possesses both CD95L and CD95 during development but its expression in adult mouse is limited to immune privileged tissues [32]. CD95-mediated apoptosis in cultured hepatocytes has been reported [33], and also in the adult mouse liver [22]. The distribution of CD95 was also shown in other types of cells; it was expressed in human epithelial cells with rare expression in mesenchymal cells [34]. The overexpression of CD95L may increase CD95L—CD95 signaling in the liver of FB₁-treated TKO mice vs. those of the WT strain.

The site of CD95L production in liver is not known at present. However, liver possesses a large number of resident lymphocytes. The number of lymphocytes in the liver is estimated at 10–20 million cells per gram tissue, which in the total organ equals nearly 15–20% of all lymphoid cells in the spleen [1]. The liver lymphocytes contain a high frequency of natural killer (NK) cells [35],

^{*} Significant change over the WT group receiving the same treatment (p < 0.05).

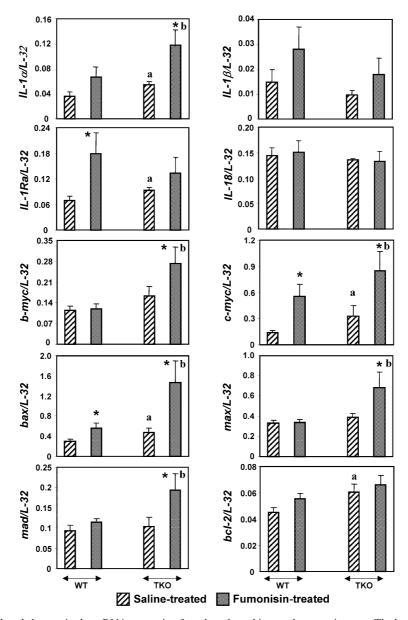


Fig. 5. The fumonisin B_1 -induced changes in the mRNA expression for selected cytokines and apoptotic genes. The hepatic RNA from an individual animal was subjected to RPA and normalized against L-32. Mean \pm standard error (n = 5). The symbol (*) indicates a significant difference from the saline-treated group of the same strain at p < 0.05. Comparisons between the two strains with similar treatment are indicated as: a, significantly different from the saline-treated WT (p < 0.05); b, significantly different from the FB₁-treated WT (p < 0.05).

and a high ratio of CD8+ cells compared to CD4+ cells. These lymphocytes are likely source of CD95L and also the T cell-related inflammatory cytokines, and have been implicated in alcohol-related liver disease [1]. Involvement of CD95 and its ligand in liver damage has been reported [22]. In the present study an increased expression of the cytotoxic molecules, including CD95L, by FB₁ may be an important determinant of hepatic injury in mice lacking TNF α .

The contribution of TRAIL to FB₁-induced liver injury can also not be underestimated. The TRAIL-induced apoptosis involves RIP [36], which is important given the increased constitutive expression of RIP in the TKO mice in the present study. The cytotoxic ligand

TRAIL was induced by FB₁ in both strains used here; however, its overall expression after FB₁ in TKO mice was relatively greater than the correspondingly treated WT mice. The relative involvement of this ligand in hepatotoxicity has been emphasized [37], and a distinct receptor for TRAIL with associated death-domain has been cloned from mouse tissues [38].

The role of other signaling factors that participate in the apoptotic process can also not be ruled out. In the TKO mice many of these were present in higher levels after FB₁ treatment than in the WT animals. Overexpression of *FADD* and *RIP* is known to cause apoptosis and these factors also participate in the CD95 signaling mechanisms [39]. At the same time the

expression of other apoptotic molecules such as *max*, *mad* and *b-myc* was induced by FB₁ in TKO mice liver only. The increase in *bax* and *c-myc* was greater in TKO mice than in WT animals after FB₁ exposure. The role of these factors in apoptosis is well known [40–42]. Over-expression of these molecules will contribute to increased hepatotoxicity in TKO mice liver; the relationship of their increased expression with increased *CD95L* expression is not well understood and it is likely that the induction of various members of myc/max/mad family was due to an increased CD95 signaling.

It needs to be emphasized that the overall level of expression for an apoptotic factor rather than the increase by fumonisin may determine the ultimate outcome of its toxicity. For example in the case of TKO mice the constitutive expression of *CD95* in liver was 89% greater than in WT animals, the level was still higher after FB₁ treatment, and therefore may contribute to increased hepatotoxicity. We earlier reported that female mice are more susceptible to fumonisin hepatotoxicity than the males despite the fact that the magnitude of induction of various inflammatory cytokines was less than that in males but the constitutive levels of their expression were higher [14].

The induction of anti-apoptotic factors was somewhat less apparent in TKO animals than in WT mice. FAP-1, a protease factor, has been reported to inhibit the CD95-mediated apoptosis [43]. This factor was increased by FB₁ in WT mice liver but the change in TKO mice after FB₁ was not significant. The constitutive expression of *FAP* was greater in TKO mice than in WT mice; the relevance of this finding is not understood at the present time. Similarly, the expression of *IL-1Ra*, which inhibits the toxic responses of IL-1 cytokine, was induced by FB₁ in WT but not in the TKO mice. Lack of such inhibition will also help the enhanced hepatotoxicity of FB₁ in TKO animals [44]. Another factor involved in the protection from apoptosis is bcl-2. The expression of *bcl-2* was unchanged both in WT and TKO strains.

It is possible that the elevation of CD95L and other apoptotic factors is related to the disruption of sphingolipid metabolism by FB₁. We earlier observed that the level of sphinganine was increased 37-fold in TKO mice after FB₁ exposure vs. 12-fold in WT mice, compared to their saline-treated counterparts [20]. Similarly, sphingosine accumulated to nearly 2-fold of saline-treated controls in TKO mice after FB₁ exposure whereas its level remained unchanged in WT mice after a similar treatment. It is possible that an increased accumulation of sphinganine, sphingosine, or both, by FB₁ caused the induction of CD95L in TKO mice, and may also be responsible for the super-induction of apoptotic factors like bax, max, mad and b-mvc in this strain. Free sphingoid bases like sphingosine and also its respective phosphate metabolite are known inducers of apoptosis in various cell models [45]. However, the pathways by which

the signal from increased sphingoid bases or their phosphates ultimately leads to cellular death are not clearly elaborated. In intact mice the induction of $TNF\alpha$ and subsequently of other cytokines is a likely factor; however, the damage can be elicited even in the absence of $TNF\alpha$ pathway. The role of CD95 signaling indicated in this report may be one such alternate mechanism.

Effect of fumonisin on various cell cycling genes has been described earlier [46]. Rats treated with fumonisin showed higher levels of cyclin D1, p27 and PCNA in their liver. The changes were observed both in mRNA and protein expression. The involvement of TNF α pathways in fumonisin toxicity in CV-1 (African green monkey kidney fibroblasts) cells has been demonstrated [47]. The effects of fumonisin in these cells included cleavage of caspase 8 and the cytotoxic effect was abrogated by the baculovirus gene, an inhibitor of caspases, thereby suggesting the involvement of TNF α . Bcl-2 was not an effective inhibitor in this study.

Considering all the alterations produced by FB₁ in the expression of various apoptotic factors, it is evident that in TKO mice, FB₁ caused a markedly greater increase in CD95L and TRAIL, together with IL-1 α and downstream signaling molecules like FADD, TRADD and RIP, than in the WT strain. A differential expression of these molecules in the absence of TNF α may account for the lack of resistance against FB₁ hepatotoxicity in TKO mice, and perhaps to an enhanced response in this strain. This increased induction was accompanied by a less pronounced increase of anti-apoptotic factors like IL-1Ra and FAP in TKO mice after treatment with FB₁. A differential expression of signaling factors in the liver of TKO mice and a variable response to FB₁ treatment in their expression may explain the lack of protection from hepatotoxic effects of FB_1 in this strain.

3. Materials and methods

3.1. Animals and housing

The transgenic strain derived from B6,129SF2 mice was procured from Jackson Laboratories (Bar Harbor, ME). The male TKO mice (B6,129S-Tnf^{tnf1Gkl}) were developed by Dr. G. Kollias of Hellenic Pasteur Institute (Athens, Greece) [25]. The animals were homozygous/homozygous male offsprings developed by backcrossing of several generations of knockout animals. The TKO mice were phenotypically identical to their counterpart B6,129SF2, hereafter referred to as the WT strain, procured from the same source. The knockout status of TKO animals was confirmed by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) on the genomic DNA from a small number of blood cells and hepatic cDNA. All animals were six weeks old upon arrival and were acclimated for one week before dosing. Mice were

group-housed in filter-barrier top cages under controlled environmental conditions, at 23 °C and 50% relative humidity with a 12-h light/dark cycle. Animals were provided free access to fumonisin-free food and tap water. Protocols for animal use followed the Public Health Service Policy on Humane Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

3.2. Treatment and sampling

Fumonisin (98% purity) was extracted from F. verticillioides culture material as described previously [48]. Its purity was assessed by comparing the FB₁ to multiple analytical standards using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) methods (R.D. Plattner, personal communication). Groups of five animals each were treated with five daily subcutaneous injections (1 ml/100 g body weight) of FB₁ in phosphate buffered saline (PBS), the dose per mouse being 0 (saline-treated controls) or 2.25 mg FB₁/kg/day. The dose and duration of treatment was selected based on our previous studies in which it produced a consistent and appreciable hepatotoxic damage in mice [14–20]. One day after the fifth and the final injection, the animals were killed with halothane. Liver samples were fixed in neutral formalin. Additional liver samples were quickly frozen on dry ice and stored at −85 °C until analyzed.

3.3. Determination of apoptosis in liver

Liver samples were fixed in 10% neutral-buffered formalin overnight and routinely paraffinized. Sections (5 μm) were prepared and subjected to TUNEL assay of apoptotic cells with a peroxidase-based Apoptag® Plus kit (Oncor Inc, Gaithersburg, MD). Briefly, sections were deparaffinated with two changes of d-limonene: butylated hydoxyanisol mixture (Citrisolv™, Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA), washed in ethanol, and hydrated with a series of descending concentrations of ethanol in water. After washing the sections were quenched with 3% hydrogen peroxide in PBS to remove endogenous peroxidases and incubated with equilibration buffer and later with a reaction mixture containing digoxygenindUTP and terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT) enzyme (Oncor). The sections were washed and treated with diluted anti-digoxygenin antibody conjugated with peroxidase. The localized peroxidase enzyme was visualized with diaminobenzidene yielding a brown product. The sections were lightly counter-stained with hematoxvlin and observed under a light microscope. Positive (rat testis) and negative controls (sections without the reaction mixture) were simultaneously assayed. In each section, the apoptotic cells were counted and the number was then normalized to a unit area as previously described [8].

3.4. Enumeration of proliferating cells in liver

Paraffin-fixed liver tissues were sectioned at 5 um. mounted on glass slides and deparaffinated with several changes of Citrosolv™ and routinely hydrated with descending serial dilutions of ethanol. Antigens were retrieved by heat treatment in a steamer containing citrate buffer (pH 6.5) for 25 min. Endogenous peroxidase activity was quenched by 3% hydrogen peroxide and sections treated to block non-specific binding with a solution containing goat serum and avidin—biotin blocking kit (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA). The sections were treated overnight at 4 °C with 1:100 dilution of PCNA antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA). The secondary biotinylated antibody was applied and sections stained with Vectastain ABC® kit as per manufacturer's protocol (Vector Laboratories). Tissues were visually examined under a light microscope and the number of PCNA-positive cells counted in the section and normalized to the unit area as described previously [8].

3.5. RNA isolation and ribonuclease protection assay

Total RNA was isolated from frozen livers (ca. 70-80 mg) with TRI® reagent (Molecular Research Center, Cincinnati, OH), using a protocol described earlier [19]. Frozen tissues were ground in liquid nitrogen in a mortar, TRI® reagent added and tissues further homogenized. The RPA was performed on samples using RiboQuant™ RPA kits (Pharmingen, San Diego, CA) [14]. Briefly, three template sets, one for CD95 signaling molecules (CD95, CD95L, FADD, FAP, FAF, TRAIL, TRADD, RIP, TNFR1 and caspase 8), another for cytokines (IL- 1α , IL- 1β , IL-6, IL-10, IL-12p35, IL-12p40, $IFN\gamma$, IL-1Ra, and migration inhibitory factor [MIF]), and a third mouse template set containing other apoptosis-related genes (b-myc, c-myc, max, mad, bcl-2, bax, bad, caspase 3 and caspase 6), were used. Each set had L32 and GAPDH as internal controls. The synthesis of high specificactivity [\alpha^{32}P]UTP-labeled T7 RNA polymerase-directed anti-sense RNA probes was done using the in vitro transcription kit according to manufacturer's protocols (Pharmingen). An aliquot of 50 µg of sample RNA was hybridized with the probe overnight and digested with RNase A and RNase T1. The RNase-protected probes were purified and resolved on a denaturing polyacrylamide gel. The gels with $[\alpha^{32}P]$ -labeled bands were exposed to an FX Imaging Screen K-HD® (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) for 6-16 h and scanned by Bio-Rad Molecular Imager® FX. The relative gene expression was digitized using Quantity One® software provided by the manufacturer (Bio-Rad) and normalized against the house keeping gene, ribosomal protein L32. The data were identical when normalized against GAPDH. Signal for some of the factors, e.g., IL-6, IL-10, IL-12p35, IL-12p40, $IFN\gamma$, was too weak to provide meaningful data and has not been reported.

3.6. Statistics

Data from these studies were analyzed by a single-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by a post hoc Duncan's multiple-range test. Hepatic apoptosis and proliferating cell counts were compared by means of the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test (nonparametric comparison). All tests were performed using an SAS computer program (SAS Institute, Cary, NC). The level of $p \le 0.05$ was considered statistically significant; lower p values are indicated with respective results.

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